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LINGUISTICS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, INTERMEDIATE LEVEL.

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THIS GUIDE, BASED UPON THE NEBRASKA CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT CENTER MATERIALS, IS DESIGNED TO EXPLAIN THE VOCABULARY AND BASIC ELEMENTS OF LINGUISTICS TO THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER WHO HAS HAD LITTLE OR NO FORMAL TRAINING IN LINGUISTICS. TO THIS END, A GLOSSARY OF LINGUISTIC TERMINOLOGY, GUIDING TEACHING PRINCIPLES, A BIBLIOGRAPHY OF RELEVANT BOOKS AND PERIODICAL ARTICLES, AND SECTIONS ON THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE, PHONOLOGY, MORPHOLOGY, FORM CLASSES, SYNTAX, DIALECT, USAGE, AND THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARE INCLUDED. EACH OF THE SECTIONS CONTAINS A BRIEF, INTRODUCTORY EXPLANATION OF THE LANGUAGE ELEMENT UNDER DISCUSSION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR LINGUISTIC ACTIVITIES AND GAMES FOR CLASSROOM USE AT THE INTERMEDIATE-GRADE LEVEL. (SEE TE 000 348 FOR THE PRIMARY-LEVEL GUIDE.) (RD)

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Sam Houston Area
Cooperative Curriculum Center for Improvement
of Educational Opportunities

Linguistics In The Elementary School
Intermediate Level

Sam Houston State College
Huntsville, Texas
August, 1967

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LINGUISTICS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Written and Compiled
by
Title III Language Arts Workshop Participants

Under the Direction
of
Mrs. Earline Dolive

Sam Houston Area
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of Educational Opportunities
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Dr. Fred Mahler, Project Director

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Wondrous the English language, language of live men,
Language of ensemble, powerful language of resistance,
Language of a proud and melancholy stock, and of all
 who aspire,
Language of growth, faith, self-esteem, rudeness, justice,
 friendliness, prudence, decision, exactitude, courage.

Walt Whitman

FOREWORD

Much of the new instructional material in elementary school language arts includes sections on linguistics. Many elementary classroom teachers having had little or no formal instruction in an area entitled linguistics have some apprehension as their background of understanding and ability to utilize this in their own classrooms. In this Guide, therefore, the vocabulary and basic elements of linguistics have been explained in such a manner that the average elementary school teacher can understand the content and can identify many aspects of their present-day instruction which are actually part of linguistics.

Teachers have many incidental teaching opportunities in which phonology, morphology, and the nature of language are natural ingredients. These opportunities in addition to direct instruction during the spelling, reading, oral and written language periods of the school day will extend the child's understanding of the various levels of spoken English, of the history and development of our language, of usage, and of the basic structure of language forms. Suggestions are made to assist the teacher in her efforts to make the study of linguistics interesting and effective.

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USING LINGUISTICS TO ADD LUSTER TO THE LANGUAGE ARTS

Intermediate Grades

One of the most interesting and exciting frontiers to be explored in the English language arts in the twentieth century is the frontier of language itself. Useful insights for teaching language and strengthening language skills can be found in the nature of language and, more particularly in the structure of American English.

Children learn the basic sound and grammatical structures of English during pre-school years. Long before they enter school they speak with meaning and listen with comprehension. School brings the necessity to learn to read language and write it.

Children's interest in language is evident to anyone who listens to them. Teachers can capitalize on this interest to teach basic ideas about language. As Bruner has argued convincingly in The Process of Education (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1960) any important concept can be taught in some honest form to all age levels. As early as first grade, elementary school children can be helped to develop several fundamental concepts about language, concepts which can be expanded and deepened throughout the years of elementary school.

The materials included in this guide for language study in the elementary grades consist of (1) a brief introduction to modern language study (for the teacher who

has not had an opportunity to acquire such knowledge) (2) linguistic games and activities useful in elementary classrooms.

The language program for the elementary school is directed toward the following goals:

1. Giving children an understanding of the nature of language.
2. Giving children an understanding of the sound (phonology) of the language and showing them that punctuation is a written representation of the suprasegmental features of spoken discourse.
3. Displaying to children the nature of word formation (morphology).
4. Showing children that English is primarily a word-order language and that their written sentences can be revised by adding, cutting, shifting, and changing.
5. Giving children a basic understanding of the history of our language, including such concepts as the origin of words, the levels of usage, and the dialects of our language.

It should be understood that a formal study of linguistics is not feasible for the elementary school child. Yet the study of phonology, morphology, syntax, the history of the language and its dialects, does have a place in the elementary school; it can serve first as a preparation for

a later formal junior high school study of linguistics and second as a device for freeing students and teachers from prescriptive attitudes toward language. Since the child ordinarily enters school with a full intuitive grasp of the sound, morphology, and syntactic repertory of his language, he may appropriately be exposed to a language program which will strengthen his grasp.

A GLOSSARY

Linguistics. The study of human speech in its various aspects (as the nature, structure, and modifications of languages, or a language including especially such factors as phonetics, phonology, morphology, accent, syntax, semantics, grammar, and the relation between writing and speech.)

Phonology. The science of speech sounds including especially the history and theory of sound changes in a single language or in two or more related languages considered together for comparative purpose.

Morphology. A study and description of word-formation in a language including inflection, derivation, and compounding.

Syntax. Sentence structure: the arrangement of word forms to show their mutual relations in the sentence.

Semantics. The historical and psychological study and the classification of changes in the meanings of words and forms including such phenomena as specialization and expansion of meaning, meliorative and pejorative tendencies, metaphor, and adaptation.

Phonemics. A branch of linguistic analysis that consists of the study of phonemes.

Phonetics. The study and systematic classification of the sounds made in the spoken utterance as they are produced by the organs of speech and as they register on the ear.

Phonics. A method of teaching beginners to read and pronounce words by learning the phonetic value of letters and

letter groups.

Phoneme. The smallest unit of speech that distinguishes one utterance from another.

Phonetic Alphabet. A set of symbols used for phonetic transcription.

Morpheme. A meaningful linguistic unit whether a free form (as pin, child, load, spray) or a bound form (as the -s of pins, the -hood of childhood, and the -ed of prayed) that contains no smaller meaningful parts.

Grapheme. The sum of all written letters and letter combinations that represent one phoneme.

Segmental Phoneme. One of the phonemes (as K, A, T in cat, tack, act) of a language that can be assigned to a relative sequential order of minimal segments.

Suprasegmental Phonemes. One of the phonemes (as pitch, stress, juncture) of a language that occur simultaneously with a succession of segmental phonemes.

Inflectional Form. A morpheme added to a word which changes the base word's grammatical meaning without changing its part of speech classification; e. g. the plural -s, the past tense -ed.

Derivational Form. A morpheme added to a word which changes the part of speech classification of the base word; e. g. -ly which changes an adjective to an adverb.

Determiner. A word belonging to a group of limiting noun modifiers that in English consists of a, an, any, each,

either, every, neither, no, one, some, the, that, those, this, these, possessive adjectives (as my), and is characterized by occurrence before descriptive adjectives modifying the same noun (as that in "that big yellow house" or his in "his new car").

Transformation. A change in a phrase or sentence pattern which alters grammatical items or grammatical structures while keeping the same (or as nearly as possible the same) total meaning.

Expansion. The addition of optional elements to a basic phrase or sentence pattern; e. g. the very amiable man is an expansion to the man.

Intonation Pattern. A unit of speech melody in a language or dialect that contributes to the total meaning of an utterance.

Dialect. A variety of language that is used by one group of persons and has features of vocabulary, grammar, or pronunciation distinguishing it from other varieties used by other groups.

Stylistics. The study of optional variations in the sounds, forms, or vocabulary of a language as characteristic of different users of the language, different situations of use, or different literary types.

Levels of Usage. Varieties of style which are correlated with the social level of the speaker or writer and the situation in which he speaks or writes.

Adapted from: Nebraska Curriculum Center. A Curriculum for English: Language Explorations for the Elementary Grades. Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press, 1966.

SOME GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR THE ELEMENTARY TEACHER

1. Principles of phonology can be employed in teaching reading, spelling, and punctuation.
2. The recognition of morphemes and what they do can lead to the mastery of vocabulary. The knowledge of meaningful affixes, both inflectional and derivational, not only serves to identify words according to the form classes but also helps to identify the lexical meaning of words. The skillful teacher will teach base words and affixes only where they are relevant and understandable.
3. The parts of speech may be approached as either form classes or structure words. The emphasis here is on slots or frames, possible positions in the sentence, and the structure words which signal each form class.
4. The teacher's knowledge of syntax (meaningful combinations of words) can be incidentally included in explanations of sentences from reading selections. The teacher can also use his knowledge of syntax to help the student become more competent in written expression by teaching the student to vary basic sentence patterns by adding, cutting, shifting, and changing.
5. Until recently, teachers have concentrated on teaching students the "rules" that govern our speech and writing.

Under the linguistic approach teachers attempt to describe the workings of our language. This new emphasis on description makes the idea of "correctness" less important than it has been in the past: instead of emphasizing conformity to a single standard, linguists and English teachers are now investigating the many different ways in which a single idea can be communicated. Emphasis on the variety of the English language leads almost inevitably to questions about the history of the language--such questions as the origins of words, the dialects of the language, the levels of usage, etc.

THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE

Language, which has always been a "tool" for teachers, is now not only a tool but a field of exploration in its own right. Teachers now need to recognize the necessity of understanding the workings of the language they use in teaching. Linguistics has contributed the following facts about the nature, structure, and function of language which should be basic to each teacher's understanding.

1. Language has a pattern; it consists of an orderly arrangement of sounds.
2. The system of language which we use is without natural, necessary, or logical reason. For example, a dog is the same animal whether we use the English word dog, the Spanish word, perro, or the French word, chien. This arbitrary nature of language refers to the choice of sounds and to the meanings which a particular society attaches to them.
3. Language is a human activity. Hence we deny that animal communication is language, even though animals undoubtedly do communicate through sounds. These animal sounds, however, are neither systematic nor arbitrary. And neither are all sounds made by human beings language; involuntary cries of rage, pain, and joy are not examples of language.
4. The purpose of language is the communication of thought. Human beings choose to utter certain

patterned sounds that are purposeful, that will transfer thought from speaker to hearer.

5. Languages manage this communication by articulated sounds (sometimes called vocal symbols).
6. The definition of language does not include the written symbols which we use to express words. Writing is a representation of sound; but writing is not language itself.

These concepts can be introduced incidentally to students in the primary grades through such activities as those on the following pages.

THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE

Intermediate Grades

Activities

Verbal and Non-Verbal Signs

After the students have read any story that mentions the sign language of Indians, lead a discussion of sign language which we use in daily communication, such as gestures.

The Prior Nature of Oral Language

Discuss such pairs of words as the following:

honor
honour

defense
defence

recognize
recognise

Call attention to the fact that the second word in each group represents British spelling. This discussion should lead to the understanding that letters are only symbols for sound and that the sequences of sounds are the real words.

Language as Symbols

After students have read a story that uses Spanish (or French, etc.) words, lead class into a discussion of the fact that a word like Mother or Madre is simply a custom of a particular country.

Language Has System

Ask students: Can you determine what kinds of words will go into the following blanks:

The _____ and _____ like each other.

The circus was _____.

Mary is an _____.

Point out that students can predict the kind of words which regularly fill the blanks. Lead students to an inductive conclusion that our language has system.

Discussion of Language Concepts

Use questions or statements such as the following to explore the nature of language:

1. We often read in stories how a mother animal senses danger and warns her offspring of danger. Could this be classified as language? Why or why not?
2. Is Braille language? Is it writing?
3. If a boy riding a roller-coaster loudly expresses his delight and fear by screaming "Whee!" is this an example of language? Why or why not?
4. Is every arrangement of words English? For example:

Eats cake Mary

Was beaten Joey the neighborhood bully boy?

Lead class to discuss what the matter of word order shows about language.

5. Lead pupils to investigate special "ways of talking" within a field of work by inquiring of their parents, neighbors, or other sources. Lead the class to collect special groups of words and their specific meanings. A discussion of special usages within a number of fields can help learners to see that a community of speakers can use the language so that it does the work they want it to do.

Adapted from: Nebraska Curriculum Center. A Curriculum for English: Language Exploration for the Elementary Grades. Lincoln, Nebraska: Univ. of Nebraska Press, 1966.

Example:

3 _____ 0 _____
 2 _____ o o _____
 1 _____ o _____
 You are going.

3 _____ o _____
 2 _____ o o 0 _____
 1 _____
 You are going?

Note: See the activities for the primary grades for other phonology exercises. The preceding exercises were adapted from:

A Curriculum for English; Language Explorations for the Elementary Grades. Lincoln, Nebraska: Univ. of Nebraska Press, 1966.

PHONOLOGY

The sounds of our language are called phones. The study of how we produce speech sounds is called phonetics. The linguist listens carefully to people as they speak. When he hears someone say pat, he notes that three distinctive (different) sounds are made. By an elaborate system of analysis, he can note three distinctive sounds. He also notices that if b sound is substituted for the beginning of pat that a different word is developed. He concludes, therefore, that p and b are distinctive units of sound. Distinctive units of sound then make for differences in meaning.

The linguist, therefore, keeps track of the sounds used in a language, puts down the distinctive sounds (such as p and b), and calls these units of sound phonemes. Phonemes, then, are the names given by the linguist to the categories within which we group sounds or "phones" that are distinctive in our language.

Two methods are used to analyze the sounds of language: the phonetic method and the phonemic method. The phonetic method is concerned with actual sound differences, whether meaningful or not. Thus, there is a real difference in the way in which we say the two p's in pip. Linguists usually employ brackets [] to indicate phonetic transcription. However, most modern linguists employ the phonemic method of analysis, which means that they analyze the sounds of the

language only to the extent that there is a difference implied in the word pip, namely/p/. (Note that phonemic symbols are enclosed in slant lines.)

In determining what the phonemes are, we do not start from the letters from which our language is written. On the contrary, we try to put spelling out of our minds and to listen to the sounds of speech as they strike our ears. The method that is most widely used is that of describing the parts of the organs of speech which are used in making the sounds.

We start with the observation that sounds fall into two major types: those in which the stream of air coming from the lungs passes through the mouth and nose with no audible friction (vowel sounds), and those in which audible friction is produced (consonant sounds). Vowel sounds may be further classified according to the position in which the tongue is held in the mouth during their pronunciation: is it raised toward the roof of the mouth, or is it down in the bottom of the mouth, or is it midway between the two positions? According to its position we classify a vowel sound as front, central, or back. In some vowel sounds it makes a difference whether the tongue muscle is tense or lax.

The vowels of English are described in Chart I. Note that two phonemic transcriptions are given. The column on the left, labeled "IPA-Kenyon-Pike", is based on the system of the International Phonetic Alphabet as adapted to American

English by John S. Kenyon and Kenneth L. Pike. The column on the right is headed "Trager-Smith" from the names of the two scholars (George L. Trager and Henry Lee Smith, Jr.) who developed it. Neither of these two transcriptions has, as yet, been completely accepted throughout the field of linguistic analysis.

CHART I

VOWEL PHONEMES OF AMERICAN ENGLISH

The vowel sound of:	Phonetic Description	IPA-Kenyon-Pike	Trager-Smith
<u>beat</u> or <u>beet</u>	high-front-tense	/i/	/iy/
<u>bit</u>	high-front-lax	/I/	/i/
<u>bait</u> or <u>bate</u>	mid-front-tense	/e/	/ey/
<u>bet</u>	mid-front-lax	/E/	/e/
<u>bat</u>	low-front-lax	/æ/	/æ/
<u>hot</u>	low-central-lax	/a/	/a/
<u>but</u>	mid-central-lax	/ə/	/ə/
<u>bought</u>	mid-back-lax	/ɔ/	/o/
<u>boat</u>	mid-back-tense	/O/	/ow/
<u>book</u>	high-back-lax	/U/	/u/
<u>boot</u>	high-back-tense	/u/	/uw/

DIPHTHONGS OF AMERICAN ENGLISH

The diphthong of:	IPA-Kenyon-Pike	Trager-Smith
<u>bite</u> , <u>height</u> , etc.	/ay/	/ay/
<u>cow</u> , <u>loud</u>	/aw/	/aw/
<u>boy</u>	/y/	/oy/

The consonant phonemes involve audible friction produced by obstructing the breath-stream at various points along its way from the lungs through the windpipe and mouth. We can classify consonants in terms of the characteristics of the obstruction: Where is it formed in the mouth? How is it formed? During the pronunciation of the consonant, are the vocal cords vibrating or not? Consonants may be of the following types:

Labial (produced with the lips)

Labio-dental (produced with the upper teeth and lower lips)

Dental (produced with the tip of the tongue against the inside of the upper front teeth)

Alveolar (produced with the tip of the tongue against the inside of the gum ridge)

Palatal (produced with the top of the tongue raised against the front of the palate)

Velar (produced with the top of the tongue raised against the back of the palate)

Further, consonants may be produced with the breath either completely stopped off or being pushed past an obstruction. In case there is an obstruction, it is normally formed by the lips and teeth, or else by the tongue inside the mouth. The breath may be forced evenly over the entire area of obstruction (fricative); down a depression in the center of the tongue (a hissing or sibilant sound); over one or both sides of the tongue (lateral). The top of the tongue may be curled over or the tongue may be bunched up in the back of the mouth

(retroflex). A sound produced with the nose used as a resonance chamber is nasal. If the vocal chords are vibrating during its production, a consonant is called voiced; if not it is voiceless. Chart II indicates the usual consonant sounds of American English.

CHART II

CONSONANT PHONEMES OF AMERICAN ENGLISH

Initial Consonant of	Technical Description	Phonemic Transcription
<u>pin</u>	voiceless bilabial stop	/p/
<u>tin</u>	voiceless alveolar stop	/t/
<u>kin</u>	voiceless velar stop	/k/
<u>bin</u>	voiced bilabial stop	/b/
<u>din</u>	voiced alveolar stop	/d/
<u>get</u>	voiced velar stop	/g/
<u>fin</u>	voiceless labio-dental fricative	/f/
<u>thin</u>	voiceless dental fricative	/θ/
<u>vim</u>	voiced labio-dental fricative	/v/
<u>this</u>	voiced dental fricative	/ð/
<u>sin</u>	voiceless dental sibilant	/s/
<u>shin</u>	voiceless palatal sibilant	/ʃ/ or /ʒ/
<u>zip</u>	voiced dental sibilant	/z/
<u>z</u> in azure	voiced palatal sibilant	/ʒ/ or /ʒ/
<u>chin</u>	voiceless palatal stop	/tʃ/ or /tʃ/
<u>gin</u>	voiced palatal stop	/dʒ/ or /dʒ/
<u>mint</u>	voiced labial nasal	/m/
<u>name</u>	voiced alveolar nasal	/n/
final sound of <u>sing</u>	voiced velar nasal	/ŋ/
<u>limb</u>	voiced dental or alveolar lateral	/l/
<u>rim</u>	voiced retroflex	/ɾ/

The vowel and consonant phonemes are often referred to as segmental phonemes, since they seem to come one after the other and form, as it were, segments of the stream of speech. In addition to these, there are other kinds of phonemic features, which occur together with sequence of these segmental phonemes; under this heading the linguist includes features of stress, intonation (or pitch) and juncture. Since they seem to be over and above the segmental phonemes, they are often called suprasegmental phonemes.

Under the heading of stress, we must distinguish at least three levels in English. Every normal simple word of more than one syllable has a syllable which is more heavily stressed than the others; we say that such a syllable has full or primary stress, and that the other syllables have weak stress. In phonemic transcription the acute accent (') is normally used to represent full stress, being written over the symbol standing for the vowel phoneme; weak stress is left unmarked. Furthermore, in compound words, there is an intermediate level of stress, which takes the place of full stress in one or more of the words which make up the compound. This intermediate stress is normally marked in phonemic transcription with a grave accent (`).

Phonemes follow each other in the stream of speech and are joined or separated in various ways; to refer to the way phonemes are joined, we use the term juncture. There are four degrees of juncture, "plus" juncture (+), "single

bar" juncture (/), "double bar" juncture (//), and "double cross" juncture (#). In brief, as applied by phonemic analysts, the juncture marks may be thought of as follows: plus juncture roughly indicates word divisions, single bar juncture roughly indicates word divisions, single bar juncture roughly indicates word-group or phrase divisions, double bar juncture roughly indicates comma breaks, and double cross juncture roughly indicates end-punctuation breaks.

PHONOLOGY IN THE ELEMENTARY

SCHOOL PROGRAM

The fact that phonological description begins with speech and has provided an objective phonemic symbol for each meaningful sound distinction means that linguists can study the extent to which the conventional alphabet is or is not a systematic sound alphabet and construct reading materials which rely on the element of system in the alphabet's representation of sound. The linguist can further reduce English spelling to a system by collecting words which start with a specific sound as well as noting the different spelling variations for the sound. Many of the exercises provided in the activities aim to show the relationship between sounds and letters. Other exercises show the relationship between intonation and punctuation patterns of written English.

PHONOLOGY ACTIVITIES

Intermediate

Phonemes

Segmentals and Their Graphemes

Vowels

/i/, /r/, /æ/

1. The teacher may pronounce the series bit, bet, bat, and then ask students to do so, noting the direction in which the tongue moves as each word is pronounced. The students will observe that the tongue is relatively high for bit, at a middle position for bet, and at a low position for bat. The teacher can call attention to the fact that these three vowel sounds are produced in the front part of the mouth. Then other sequences may be introduced to illustrate further the differences in "tongue height" which produce the different vowel sounds.

For example:

rid, red, rat

hid, fed, fad

fill, fell, fat

think, head, mat

The group should be asked to make observations concerning the tongue height distinctions and to suggest which sound should go in each of the boxes which stand for the front of the mouth.

Example:

	FRONT	MID	BACK
High	bit; rid		
Middle	bet; red		
Low	bat; fat		

Be sure to use full words; not just letters to signal which sound should go in each box.

2. After students have decided which vowels are high, middle, and low in the front of the mouth, have them collect all of the words which they know which have the /i/ sound as in bit. Then have them observe how many different letters or groups of letters (graphemes) stand for this sound. Have students keep a notebook in which the /i/ sound occurs, and the letter or letters used for it.
3. Repeat the process in 2 for the /e/ sound.
4. Repeat the process in 2 for the /æ/ sound.

Sample lists of words which students might collect for the /i/, /e/, and /æ/ sounds:

/i/	bit	/e/	pet	/æ/	bad
	busy		says		laugh
	women		said		meringue
			friend		

Collecting Sounds

This same procedure may be repeated for the other vowel sounds, as well as for the consonant sounds. From a study of this nature students and teacher may make up charts to be mounted in the classroom, on which may be listed all of the more common spellings for each of the vowel and consonant phonemes.

Stress Patterns

After the students have begun to pay particular attention to stress patterns, introduce them to the differences in meaning that can occur by varying stress patterns in sentences. Copy each of the following sentences on the chalk board twice. Place stress marks over underlined item only to show contrast in meaning between each pair of sentences:

1. She is a Spanish teacher.
She is a Spanish teacher.
2. They live in the white house.
They live in the White House.
3. We saw the racing horse.
We saw the racing horse.

Homonyms

Children enjoy the curiosity of homonyms. Devise an exercise such as the following based on Children of the Covered Wagon.
Directions: Fill in the blank with the correct word of each numbered set.

- | | | | |
|-----------|---------|------------|---------|
| (1) heard | (2) two | (3) reined | (4) way |
| herd | too | rained | weigh |
| | to | | |

Suddenly we 1 the thundering hoofs of a 1 buffalo.
2 of our cowboys were 2 far away 2 hear our
 warnings. As the first of them appeared over the hill, we 3
 our horses to the edge of the canyon and 3 a shower of
 rocks down on the 2 men. Just then they 1 the
 thunder of the 1 and galloped out of the 4.

List other sets of homonyms. Let the students try writing a paragraph with them.

Sound Grouping

Read the following words to the students and have them attempt to put them in columns according to their sounds. (1) initial ch sound (2) final ch sounds (3) initial sh sound (4) final sh sound.

chop
inch
flash
crash
fresh
pitch
cheer

sheep
brush
shall
ranch
fish
she
lunch

splash
chin
chair
shoe
cheese
should
wish

Suprasegmentals, Method of Symbolizing, and Punctuation

The teacher may explain to the students that levels of stress may be marked as follows:

Primary

Secondary

Tertiary

Quaternary

/

^

\

∨

1. Use this method of marking stress in such sentences as the following:

We shall read together.

Rest while I am gone.

"Keep your filthy hands off me, lout!" he shouted.

"Will you teach me to write?" asked Robin.

2. There are at least three levels of pitch in most intonation systems:

(a) low

(b) medium

(c) high

Use pitch levels to reinforce the rules of punctuation. After putting many sentences on the board and analyzing them, elicit from the class the following generalizations:

- (a) Sentences ending with periods usually end with the 2-3-1 pitch pattern.
- (b) Questions which elicit a "yes" or "no" answer usually require the 2-2-3 pattern.

MORPHOLOGY

Morphology is the study of word forms. It is concerned with the meaningful grouping of sounds that make up the words of a particular language. The emphasis is on the grammatical grouping of sounds, rather than on the meaning that the grouping signifies.

A morpheme is a single piece of meaning expressed by a word or a piece of a word. The idea of the morpheme may be further clarified by means of an illustration. Let us consider boy's. Boy's contains the meaning of the word boy, which we might define as a small child. But it also contains the possessive meaning. The apostrophe and the s tells us that the boy has something. So the single word boy's contains two meanings: it has the meaning of boy and also the meaning of possession. Therefore, boy's is two morphemes: boy + possession. In a similar way, boy and -hood are two morphemes because they are two meaningful units. Although boyhood is only one word, we still have two morphemes.

The study of modern English morphology properly concerns itself with different sorts of word-forms. One of these is inflectional classes in our language. There are four such classes:

1. Nouns regularly have forms for plural and genitive cases which are made by adding /s/, /z/, or /ez/ to the uninflected stem; poets, kings, and cabbages.
2. Verbs regularly have forms for past tense which

are made by adding /t/, /d/, or /ed/ to the uninflected stem; helped, encouraged, and aided.

3. Adjectives regularly have forms for comparison which are made by adding /er/ and /est/ to the uninflected stem; bigger, biggest.
4. The pronouns have an odd set of variant forms which express objective case; I, me; he, him; she, her; we, us; they, them; and who, whom; in addition, they have genitive and reflexive forms.

The inflectional morpheme does not change the word class but expresses a grammatical category like tense in verbs or plurality or comparison in adjectives.

A derivational morpheme is one that usually changes a word from one word class or subclass to another. For example, er makes a noun of the verb work. (See chart for others.)

Some morphemes are said to be "free" in that they carry meaning in the language all by themselves (boy, large, help); others are said to be "bound" in that they express meaning only when connected with another morpheme (boys, boyish, boyhood; larger, largeness, enlarge; endanger, dangerous; helped, helpful, helpless). Bound morpheme affixes may be either prefixes or suffixes. There is a third and somewhat more complex morpheme, the "bound base morpheme." The word cranberry contains an example. The form cran- in cranberry is not an affix morpheme; neither does it regularly stand alone. Cran-, then, is neither a free nor an affix morpheme. It does, however, occur in a position that free morphemes do occupy, as in blueberry, blackberry, strawberry. The bound

base morpheme, which is what cran- is called, may be defined as a morpheme that regularly stands where free morphemes stand but is itself neither free nor an affix.

Sound variations within a particular morpheme are spoken of as allomorphs. For example, the plural is the sound /ez/ in dishess, the sound /s/ in catss, the sound /z/ in motherss. The three distinct sounds that indicate plurality are allomorphs of the same morpheme since all three mean "more than one." Some English words form their plural without any addition to the word: man-men, tooth-teeth, sheep-sheep. Linguists refer to this as a zero or unmarked allomorph of the plural morpheme. Others such as ox-oxen, criterion-criteria are listed as exceptions.

Morphology is an interesting part of structural linguistics, one that can perhaps be well used in teaching vocabulary mastery and growth.

The following charts (taken from A Curriculum for English, University of Nebraska) may be used as guides to serve teachers of all levels of elementary school. They could form the nucleus of class discussions and observations of word formation in the literature that is read to students or in the children's composition.

CHART I

NOUN SUFFIXES

ac	maniac, hypochondriac
ace	grimace, populace, furnace
acy	diplomacy, efficacy, accuracy
ade	decade, serenade, lemonade
aire	millionaire, solitaire
an	Anglican, human, artisan
ance	constancy, pregnancy, flippancy
ant	servant, applicant, confidant
ar	mortar, vicar, calendar
ard	blizzard, standard, drunkard
ary	dictionary, aviary, granary
asm	enthusiasm, iconoclasm, chasm
ate	acetate, mandate, candidate
cy	normalcy, residency
dom	Christendom, kingdom, freedom
e	naivete, fiancé, finale
eau	portmanteau, chateau
ee	employee, filigree, refugee
eer	volunteer, engineer
en	kitten, mitten, heathen, citizen
ence	correspondence, dependence, permanence
ency	dependency, emergency, despondency
end	dividend, legend, minuend
ent	rodent, assent, correspondent
er	teacher, meter, customer
ery	fishery, cookery, bindery
ese	Portuguese, Genoese, Chinese
ess	actress, goddess, songstress
et	cabinet, blanket, pocket
ette	cigarette, etiquette, kitchenette
ety	society, piety, propriety
eur	amateur, chauffeur, connoisseur
hood	childhood, likelihood, brotherhood
ial	credential, official
ian	physician, barbarian, centenarian
ice	justice, service, prejudice
ics	italics, statistics, dynamics
ide	cyanide, sulfide
ier	cavalier, cashier, premier
ine	discipline, medicine, gasoline
ion	solution, ambition, million
is	basis, crisis, emphasis
ism	capitalism, idealism, rationalism
ist	scientist, dentist, Buddhist
ite	socialite, granite, bauxite
itis	arthritis, appendicitis
ity	mobility, creativity, longevity

ive	motive, detective, directive
kin	mannikin, lambkin, catkin
le	castle, ladle, cattle
let	bracelet, ringlet, leaflet
ling	hireling, gosling, duckling
ment	fragment, instrument, government
or	error, favor, elevator
ry	jewelry, foundry, cavalry
ship	friendship, scholarship, lordship
sion	illusion, expansion, erosion
ster	youngster, songster, jokester
t	plant, weight, height
tain	captain, mountain, chieftain
th	birth, growth, health, truth
tion	action, caution, condition
trix	aviatrix, directrix, executrix
try	deviltry, casuistry, artistry
tude	altitude, fortitude, multitude
ty	liberty, beauty, novelty
ule	molecule, capsule, globule
um	curriculum, medium, linoleum
ure	picture, culture, furniture
us	chorus, syllabus, sinus
y	story, Italy, dolly

CHART II

VERB AFFIXES

Prefixes

be	beset, bemoan, besmear
en	enthroned, endanger, enclose
em	embark, emblazon, embed
y	yclept
re	rebuild, reawaken, reconfirm, reheat
with	withdraw, withhold

Suffixes

ate	refrigerate, delineate, animate
en	darken, strengthen, weaken
esce	acquiesce, coalesce
ify	justify, simplify
ize	ostracize, utilize, economize

Ify and ize are almost always verb affixes; the other affixes may go with other parts of speech, and are not certain signals.

CHART III

ADVERB SUFFIXES

ly	quickly, haltingly, suspiciously
time	anytime, sometime, everytime
where	anywhere, somewhere, nowhere, everywhere
way	anyway, someway
long	headlong, sidelong, endlong
place	anyplace, someplace
ward	homeward, forward, westward, inward
ways	sideways, endways, lengthways
wise	clockwise, sidewise, weatherwise, otherwise
day	someday
meal	piecemeal
side	beside, aside, inside, outside

Some word endings with suffixes may undergo a shift to the adjective function: a piecemeal solution, an outward threat. A few ly words function as adjectives, but ly adverbs seldom function as adjectives (He was a quickly man). Such words as everywhere, beside, elsewhere, otherwise, likewise, backward, and sometimes are rarely shifted. Words using the inflectional suffixes characteristic of the adverb do not generally shift to another function.

CHART IV

ADJECTIVE AFFIXES

Prefix	
a	asleep, afloat, adrift, alone
Suffixes	
able	drinkable, peaceable, comfortable, lovable
ac	cardiac, maniac, demoniac, zodiac
al	casual, annual, economical, hysterical
an	American, urban, European, human, Anglican
ant	radiant, defiant, valiant, pliant
ar	regular, singular, popular
ary	auxiliary, military, primary, voluntary
ate	graduate, separate, passionate, proportionate
ed	molded, covered, cultured, exchanged

en	hidden, written, risen, golden
ent	despondent, insistent, consistent
eous	courageous, beauteous, aqueous, vitreous
escent	convalescent, obsolescent, adolescent
ese	Portuguese, Chinese, journalese
esque	picturesque, grotesque, burlesque
ful	graceful, beautiful, harmful
ial	special, artificial, superficial
ian	artesian, Brazilian, Italian, Grecian
ible	edible, feasible, dividible, eligible
ic	specific, Olympic, photographic, classic
ical	economical, physical, historical
id	humid, fluid, morbid, sordid
ile	fragile, agile, docile, mobile, virile
ing	reading, writing, talking
ine	feminine, masculine, divine, crystalline
ious	religious, rebellious, anxious, contagious
ish	girlish, snobbish, devilish, bluish
ite	infinite, definite, favorite, exquisite
ive	native, motive, restive, creative
less	merciless, homeless, colorless, treeless
like	godlike, homelike, childlike, lifelike
ly	lovely, heavenly, fatherly, hourly
ory	sensory, auditory, deprecatory
ose	verbose, morose, grandiose, cellulose
ous	jealous, pious, poisonous
uous	sensuous, ambiguous, virtuous, strenuous
some	lonesome, tiresome, meddlesome
th	ninth, fourth
y	fiery, rosy, rainy, spicy
ual	visual, residual, sensual

None of these is necessarily confined to the adjective, since almost any adjective may be converted into a noun through the use of the noun indicator (as the beautiful).

MORPHOLOGY ACTIVITIES

Intermediate

*Inflectional Affixes-Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives

The teacher may ask students to arrange words in three separate boxes on the basis of the kinds of endings which they will take.

<u>Box 1</u>	<u>Box 2</u>	<u>Box 3</u>
_____s	_____s	_____er
_____ 's	_____ed	_____est
_____s'	_____ing	

Such words as the following may be used for this exercise:

dog
walk
fine
cat
wiggle

pretty
mat
plow
tiger
baseball

runner
lovely
milk
fast
shoe

*Derivational Affixes

The teacher may play a record of her choice and ask students to listen for words containing either prefixes or suffixes. The base or root word should be found and then specific prefixes or suffixes which have been introduced to the class. Example: farmer, which contains the root form and the affix er can be discussed as to meaning. The students may also form other words which use the affix er or or.

Inflectional Affixes-Verb Forms

The teacher may read a chapter of Johnny Texas or any other story. Examples of inflected verbs ending in ed and occurring

in the story can be put on the chalkboard. The students may then discuss the words with inflectional affixes as to (1) how they are alike and (2) the meaning of ed. Typical ed words might be the following:

walked	rolled
crawled	roamed
	galloped

Students could then make sentences of their own using ed words.

*Root Words-Prefixes and Suffixes

The teacher may give the following explanation: "A root word is a base word to which parts may be added. A prefix is added at the beginning of a root word. Suffixes are added to the end of a root word." Then the students can find the prefixes and suffixes in such words as the following:

rebuilding	powerful
unkindness	disappearing
refilling	motionless
painless	

Students may also be asked to write the prefix or the suffix which correctly completes such sentences as the following. They are directed to choose from this list of affixes: ness, re, un, ful, and pre.

1. The _____ expected letter surprised her.
2. Exercising too long may cause sore _____.
3. Outdoor games can be health _____.
4. Old houses are often _____ built.
5. Litterbugs are thought _____ people.

*Compound Words

On the chalkboard the teacher may write such a sentence as "A boat with sails is called a _____." Then she may ask the pupils to read the sentence silently and to decide what one word completes the sentence. Then she will write the compound sailboat on the board. Similar procedures may be used with such words as houseboat, sunbeam, moonlight, football, headache, rattlesnake.

Root Words and Affixes

The teacher may write the following sentences on the chalkboard and ask students to read them:

1. Everyone needs friends.
2. I lost my friend's address.
3. He is a friendly person.
4. Jim acts friendlier than Ted.
5. Ed is sometimes unfriendly.
6. I hope I never am friendless.
7. I need your friendship.

The underlined words may then be discussed and the pupils be permitted to tell what each underlined form means ("more than one friend," "of a friend," "like a friend," etc.)

Derived Forms

The teacher may write the following sentences on the chalkboard:

1. I prefer candy.
2. His preference is ice cream.
3. The soldier was a hero.
4. His heroic acts were rewarded.

Then the class may discuss the meaning of each root word and of its derived form. Other words that might be used are as follows:

custom
pursue
advise
act

customary
pursuit
advisory
active

*"Ful" Game

The class is divided into two groups. Group I writes a noun on the board. Group II makes an adjective or noun by adding "ful." When either side fails, the other side can make a score by correcting a spelling, naming a noun, etc.

Example:

mercy + ful (merciful)	pity + ful (pitiful)
dread + ful	hate + ful
force + ful	sin + ful
boast + ful	success + ful
bounty + ful (bountiful)	duty + ful (dutiful)
spoon + ful	dish + ful
plate + ful	arm + ful

FORM CLASSES

The study of morphology directs our attention to the structure of words, to their forms. When the various phonemic elements are combined into meaningful units, these units can be recognized by their particular form, so that boy carries meaning of and by itself, and skip does the same thing. But ignoring meaning, we can say that they represent two classes of words.

The linguist then classifies words into two large groups: the form classes and the structure or function words. The form classes include four large classes: Nouns or Form Class I; Verbs or Form Class II; Adjectives or Form Class III; and Adverbs or Form Class IV. The linguist further uses four basic considerations to determine the characteristics of the Form Classes: (1) affixes, inflectional or derivational (2) word order in the basic English sentence patterns (3) structure or function words and (4) stress.

See the accompanying chart for the explanation of the inflections, derivational affixes, word order and function words for each of the four large classes. In order to understand this chart the following information concerning the structure or function words will probably be helpful.

Among the function words that are used to identify the four form classes the following are important:

1. Determiners signal, or warn us that a noun will follow shortly.

They also point out and limit. The list below is partial:

DETERMINERS

the	my	that	several
a	your	this	most
an	his	those	all
some	her	few	no
many	their		one, two, etc.

2. Auxiliaries precede verbs and are used largely to give a finer shade of meaning. They have been divided into two groups:

AUXILIARIES

Modals

can
may
will
shall
must
could
might
would
should

Verb-Form

have
be

3. Intensifiers are words that pattern like very and that signal both adjectives and adverbs.

CLUES FOR IDENTIFYING THE FORM CLASSES

<u>Form Class</u>	<u>Inflections</u>	<u>Function Words</u>	<u>Syntactic Positions</u> (Slots)	<u>Typical Derivational</u> <u>Affixes</u>
Noun	-s, -es(plural) -'s, -s'(poss.)	Determiners	I saw the ____. ____ are here. His ____ is here.	-ment -ness -ity etc.
Verb	-s(3rd per. sing.) -ing -ed, d, t	Auxiliary	They will ____ (it). They ____ (it). Please ____ (it).	en- be- -ify etc.
Adjective	-er -est	Intensifier(very) <u>more, most</u>	He was (very) ____. He seemed ____.	-able -ible -ish etc.
Adverb	-er -est	Intensifier(very) <u>more, most</u>	He worked ____. He walked ____. He left ____.	-ways -ly etc.

FORM CLASS ACTIVITIES

Intermediate

Inflectional Affixes-Nouns

The teacher instructs the children to listen for words that end with "s" as she reads a paragraph that contains plural nouns, singular possessives, and plural possessives. Write the words on the board as the students recall them. Discuss what the "s" in each word means.

Inflectional Affixes-Verbs

Ask the students to rewrite a paragraph which is written in the past tense. The teacher may wish them to write it in the present or future.

Inflectional Affixes-Adverbs

Write these sentences on the board.

1. The man walked _____ toward home.
2. The girls _____ went into the building.
3. The dog howled _____ last night.

Have the children suggest words to fill the slots. What does each word have in common? Can we place these words in other places in the sentence without changing the meaning of the sentence?

SYNTAX

Syntax is the study of meaningful combinations or infinite variety of order of words. This is parallel to the commutative law of addition in mathematics.

Structural Classifications

English has at least ten basic sentence patterns.

Here are the five most basic ones:

Pattern 1	Noun Squirrels	Verb run	(Adverb) quickly
Pattern 2	Noun Man	Verb seems	(Adjective) good
Pattern 3	Noun John	Verb is	Noun 1 boy
Pattern 4	Noun John	Verb saw	Noun 2 Bill
Pattern 5	Noun John	Verb gave	Noun 2 Bill
			Noun 3 a present

Expanding Sentence Patterns

The basic noun-verb pattern can be expanded in various ways. A realistic way of expanding by modifying is by adding adjectives, adjective phrases, adverbs, and adverb phrases or clauses to a very simple sentence. This does not change the pattern but makes the sentence more specific.

Example:

The little brown/squirrels/in the tree/played/happily.

The sentence now tells the size and color of the squirrels, where they are and how the squirrels played. The is always a determiner.

transformational generative approach.

When linguists speak of transformation, they are referring to the kinds of moves which may be made with the parts of basic English sentences. The phrase structure rules of modern English is the background against which transformation work. This phrase-structure may be thought of as a systematic series of divisions of the sentence as a whole. A transformation is a systematic shifting of the parts of the phrase-structure patterns. Examples are the transformation for passive voice, of verb particles, for negation of stress, and for various questions. Transformational grammars are synthetic, rather than analytic. They begin with generalizations about the language - about the phrase structure, possible transformation, and the effect of syntactical changes upon morphology and phonology.

The Roberts English Series: A Linguistics Program (grades 3-9) uses the transformational generative approach to syntax.

SYNTAX ACTIVITIES

Intermediate

Syntactic Form Classes

The teacher writes the following words on the board. The students are instructed to write each word on a separate slip of paper: face, my, never, his, dog, usually, car, struck, the, liked, a, washed, window, sometimes, seldom, George, stroked, he, she, Annabelle, her, goldfish, often, Sam, touched. Put the slips into a pile and draw out five slips one at a time. Record each word as you draw it so that the first word will be the first word in the "sentence." Record the sequences of words on the board. The chances of getting a grammatical sentence are very small. Now have the students group all the verbs in one pile and all the nouns in another pile. Draw one slip from the noun pile and one slip from the verb pile and three from the other pile. The chances of drawing a grammatical sentence are greatly increased. If all the words are classified and a certain order is followed in drawing, each group of five words should make a grammatical sentence.

Fun of Changing - Asking to Telling

Make several interrogative sentences and let the children change them as many ways as they can but make them declarative.

Example:

1. May I go to the store?
2. You may go to the store.

Questions

The teacher writes What, Where, When, Who, Why on the board. She tells students that very often they use these words to start sentences. She lets the children choose one of the words and ask a question to the class. She asks the students if they can answer these questions with yes or no. She asks them to tell what kind of answers would they need to give for these questions. (In general, the reply must supply some information.)

(Mabel O'Donnell. All Through the Year. Evanston, Ill.: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1966, p. 144.)

Appositives as Synonyms

Give the students some very descriptive sentences and have them arrange the descriptive words as appositives.

Example:

The curious and mischievous boy ran around the corner after the dog.

The boy, a curious and mischievous boy, ran around the corner after the dog.

Expanding with Verbals

It will probably be best to have children learn about verbals by imitation sentences containing them.

Example:

The children returned home, exhausted from a day of school.

*Slots, Fillers and Syntactic Form Classes

Each child makes a "frame" (two sheets of construction paper

about 7" x 11", stapled or glued together at each end; a slot approximately 12" wide cut across the center of top sheet). Then, on a series of "slot-filler" paper strips of different colors (2" x 9"), the teacher writes words of different form classes. The children insert these strips into their frames in various combinations, trying to make as many sentences as possible. Either the teacher or the children may make the "slot-filler." The teacher may wish to add more words to those given.

"Slot-Filler" Paper Strips

<u>Green</u>	<u>Tan</u>	<u>Orange</u>	<u>Blue</u>	<u>Yellow</u>
the	brightest	years	burned	slowly
the	newer	snows	started	sadly
these	white	months	turned	down
the	bigger	boys	cried	fast
those	straight	dogs	walked	suddenly
these	smallest	ladies	settled	quickly
those	warm	soldiers	moved	happily

Further work with slot-fillers and syntactic form classes may be done through the following activities:

Place the following sentences on the chalkboard using an orange chalk mark for the open slot.

1. (The) _____ raced.
2. (The) _____ killed (the) bear.
3. (The) _____ was (my) friend.
4. (The) _____ was red.

Ask students to fill the blanks with words other than he, she, it. Then ask them to see if the words go into Box 1, 2, or 3 (see activities in Morphology Section). The students will observe that most of the words which will fit in the open slots are words which will take the endings s, 's, s'.

Comparing While Transforming

Give the children two true sentences and make one sentence from it, comparing something.

Example: 1. An orange is juicy in Texas.

2. An orange is juicy in Florida.

Combined: An orange is+as+juicy in Texas+as+an orange is juicy in Florida.

An orange is as juicy in Texas as in Florida.

*Negative Sentences

Before introducing contractions, give the children some positive sentences and read them together. Have a discussion as to how we can make the sentences negative. Then let them make negative sentences keeping the same tense.

Example:

I study every day.

I do not study every day.

DIALECT

One of the most interesting aspects of language is dialect. The imagination and ingenuity of people is reflected in the endless variety of dialects. Dialects can sometimes help us understand the history of our language.

A dialect may be defined broadly as a speech pattern which is used by members of a small group within a large speech community. The term dialect is often used to describe the speech pattern of people who are geographically isolated from the larger speech community. Social dialects are not limited to geographical locations, but are related to educational and social positions.

Dialects generally differ from the main language in pronunciation and vocabulary rather than in grammatical structure.

An understanding of dialect and its major forms is important in every teacher's training. The teacher who is familiar with dialects will understand that local dialects are adequate to describe the ideas and thoughts of the people. This is especially true of teachers who are working with culturally disadvantaged or culturally different children.

Most teachers will, at one time or another, have students from other areas of the country who have dialects quite different from the local community. The teacher should familiarize the student with other dialects so that he will be prepared for times when he will meet people from outside

his own community. The teacher should not attempt to substitute new words for the local dialect if that dialect is sufficient to describe materials being used in the classroom.

For information concerning dialects in America, the teacher might consult Jean Malmstrom and Annabel Ashley, Dialects - U. S. A., available from the National Council of Teachers of English.

DIALECT ACTIVITIES

Intermediate Grades

Regional Variations in Speech

By the third grade level teachers may begin to acquaint children with the nature of dialect. One possible way of doing this is to take a poll of the class to discover if any of the children have moved recently (within one or two years) from another area of the country. If there are several children in this category the teacher can obtain a large map and point out where these children are from, perhaps by marking former home towns with colored flags. By consulting charts such as those used by dialect geographers (see below), the teacher may be able to prompt the "immigrant" children to recall some of the dialect peculiarities of their home towns. Some children may need no prompting, but most children are not terribly conscious of the existence of dialectal variations. They tend to regard children whose dialect pattern varies from their own as "out-group" people and to make fun of them as eccentric without understanding that "everybody talks the way Johnny talks" in the area from which he came. By using the charts below the teacher allows the children to show themselves that dialects consist not only of vocabulary differences, but pronunciation differences as well. Once a child's general dialect area has been established, he can be asked "which word he uses" to describe the items in Chart I below. Other children may volunteer variant

dialect words, and the different words may be written on the chalkboard. Using Chart I, the teacher can "test" for pronunciation differences and call these differences to the children's attention. An exercise of this sort should be carried out in an enthusiastic and broadminded manner, so that the children will respect, rather than ridicule, various dialects and pronunciations. The geographical divisions in Chart I apply to areas on the east coast of the U. S. The northern area extends from northern New England to central Pennsylvania; the midland area extends from central Pennsylvania to South Carolina in the area which lies west of the Blue Ridge Mountains. Dialect variations are still most pronounced along the east coast but the major linguistic areas have fanned out in a westward direction, so that many of the dialect differences found in the major east coast areas will also be found in the respective northern, central and southern states as far west as the Rocky Mountains. The term "General American" is often used to denote the common speech of the midwestern and western states.

CHART I

North	Midland	South
cow yard	barnyard	barn lot, lot
burlap bag or sack	gunny sack	croker sack
pail	bucket	bucket, slop bucket
wish bone	wish bone	pulley-bone, pull-bone
skunk	skunk, polecat	polecat
angle worm, fish worm	fish worm, fishing worm	earthworm, redworm
spider	skillet	frying pan

CHART II

Eastern New England and New York City Area	Middle Atlantic and Western Pennsylvania (Similar to the General American Area)	South
far/fa/	far/far/	
farm/fam/	farm/farm/	
law/lor/		law/lo/
cart/kat/	cart/kart/	cart/kat/
ideas/aydiyrz/		
	greasy/griysiy/	greasy/griyziy/
	tune/tuwn/	tune/tjuwn/

General American
(Midwest, Northwest, Southwest and
West Coast Areas)

far/far/	orange/orindz/	tune/tuwn/
farm/farm/	dog/dog/	ask/ask/
cart/kart/	fog/fog/	aunt/ænt
	Dorothy/dore • iy/or /dor • iy/	

Have children who have lived in "others areas" say the same word. Ask the children if they can hear differences in the way the words are said. If a child's speech patterns reveal a dialect difference in respect to the majority of the class, record on the chalkboard test words which are pronounced in a manner like the majority as well as the test words which are pronounced in a manner different from that of the majority.

Adapted from Nebraska Curriculum Center. A Curriculum for English; Language Explorations for the Elementary Grades. Lincoln, Nebraska: Univ. of Nebraska Press, 1966. pp. 165-167.

Dialect Comparisons

Children can read stories such as The Sooner Hound and Casey Jones, and compare the dialects used in each.

Dialect Imitation

Children might read a story with a dialect peculiar to them. They might pick a particular passage from the story and try imitating the dialect.

Occupational Dialect

To acquaint children with occupational dialect, he might make a list of words used in connection with his father's work.

For example:	Physician	diagnosis prescription
	Photographer	enlarger photographic

Changing Dialect

Children might substitute other words (or other dialect words, if possible) for the dialect words in passages from Huckleberry Finn.

Rewriting Dialect

Children should be able to rewrite a good many of the unusual sentences written in another dialect. Have the children, for example, consider such excerpts as the following from "A Shamrock for O'Toole":

"Tis a shame, but thank ye anyway. Now then, me boy, ye be keeping your eyes open, and fetch it to me if you find one."

"Thank ye kindly. But for one thing, I'd niver enjoy the things you eat, me stomach bein' that delicate. For another, your folks would niver be knowing I was there. 'Tis only

a few people who can see or hear leprechauns. Away with ye, now. And don't forget to be looking for me shamrock. I'd like to be takin' a trip home to visit me auld mither."

USAGE

Linguists believe that a prime function of an English program is to bring the child to familiarity with and an easy use of the forms of the language that are approved in polite and prosperous society. One of the main problems is to identify what is appropriate in polite society.... Authorities disagree on the acceptable speaking form. Some say that it is not incorrect to say "can I" while other authorities do not agree on this.

Linguists usually distinguish three levels of usage: formal, colloquial and illiterate. Formal language is identified as that used in a scholarly article or speech. Colloquial is the type of vocabulary found in a friendly level or an ordinary conversation. Illiterate usage comprises that system of vocabulary of people with little or no education.

Sometimes linguists use two major categories--standard and nonstandard. Standard English usage is that form of speaking and writing used by literate people communicating with each other. Nonstandard English usage is the forms used by uneducated people.

Nonstandard English usage is an adequate means of communication for its users. This nonstandard English is not socially adequate for most of the cultural activities for which the school prepares the child. The teacher should suggest to students standard substitutes rather than condemn existing patterns. The following is a list of nonstandard

words or phrases commonly used by the children:

That was real good.	He don't
We is or He are	He has took or He taken
Haven't got any	Has broke
Leave me do it	Have saw
Gimme	Have ran
Brang	Couldn't hardly
John and me are going	He played good

Robert C. Pooley in Teaching English Usage suggested this list of nonstandard words or phrases:

Ain't or hain't	My brother, he
Hair or aire	He run
A orange	Have saw
Have ate	I says
He give	He seen
I got	

Linguists believe that by structuring oral sentence patterns for children to repeat, children will become familiar with acceptable usage. Such activities as the ones listed in the following section are examples of pattern drills that can be used.

The following examples of pattern drills are suggested:

1. To encourage correct usage of good and well. Discuss with the children how someone may be a good dancer but dances well. Children can then make up other sentences using good and well. One example might be - He bats the ball well. He is a good batter.
2. To encourage correct usage of he. Tell children that if they will listen to these three sentences, it will help

them to remember to use he in the right place. "He did. John did. John and he did." Ask each student to think of three similar sentences to give orally to the class. Instead of the name John, suggest that they use another name. Let each student say his sentences. Encourage other students to listen to see if the reciting student is "playing the game fair," or using he correctly.

3. Play a game with has gone and have gone. Two players plan to act out a sentence telling where they have gone together. They tell the teacher what they will act out. As they act out their sentence, the teacher may ask, "Where have _____ and _____ gone?" A player will answer, "They have gone to _____." The player who guesses right may choose someone to act out a sentence with him.
4. To encourage children to say "I have not any." Discuss with students the word any and have them use it in sentences answering the question "How many?" Give students a copy of the following poem:

How Many? Not Any.

How many teeth do you have on your toes?
How many horns on the end of your nose?
I do not have _____.

How many lions do you have under your bed?
How many eyes in the back of your head?
I do not _____.

How many stars do you have in your eyes?
How many cars do you have in the skies?
I do _____.

How many whales do you have at school?
How many seals in your swimming pool?
I _____.

How many mistakes do you have today?
How many, I wonder, how many?
Oh, that is very easy to say.
I'm sure _____.

After students have read poem several times with teacher let them make up their own verses to read orally to the class.

Collins, Nora. Elementary English, "I Ain't Got None," XLIV (Jan. 19, 1967) p. 36.

5. Use a picture such as one of a fireman rescuing a small kitten from a tree. Direct the students as follows: When you talk about animals, you often use the work climbed. Let's make sentences about this picture in which we use climb.
Examples:

A kitten _____ from his soft basket.
He _____ from the lap of a little girl.
He _____ down and ran outside.
He _____ up a tree.
A fireman _____ up to rescue the kitten.

This procedure may be used for drill with any standard forms which students need drill on.

A PROCEDURE FOR ATTACKING USAGE PROBLEMS

There are a variety of ways to attack a problem in usage. The following sequence of steps is adapted from a similar list by Hatchett and Hughes.

1. Find what your group needs. What abilities, what experiences, what interests, and what weaknesses does the group possess?

Procedures:

Note most conspicuous errors.
Listen to children during all types of oral language activities. Listen for language patterns.
Listen to children in out-of-school situations, i.e., playground, lunchroom, organization meetings.
Examine written work for errors that are common.
Make inventories from either standardized or teacher-made tests to find out what children need.

2. Determine which errors should be attacked.

Procedures:

Help children incidentally.
Make an individual diagnostic rating sheet.

3. Select errors to attack.

Procedures:

Check class errors against generally recognized usage errors.
Make a composite chart showing types of errors and

members of the group.

4. Give individual help.

Procedures:

Give specific help when needed by an individual.
Group children by common problems.

5. Help child find his most outstanding errors in his own speech and writing.

Procedures:

Use a tape recorder to help him spot speech errors.
Keep a notebook of his own errors.
Teach child to proofread for errors.

6. Expand language experiences.

Procedures:

Encourage audience situations such as reading, listening to stories, dramatizing, sharing poetry.
Give praise for good use of language.
Read good literature.
Listen to good literature.
Enjoy choral speaking.
Listen to recordings.
Select and view good television shows.
Use reference charts and posters.
Use cartoons to illustrate actions of verbs, power of adjectives and adverbs.
Display children's written work.

7. Help children evaluate.

Procedures:

Set up standards with children.
Take time to evaluate work during and after an activity.
Use an opaque projector to show written work to group.
Use an overhead projector to illustrate errors and corrections. Copy a part of written work on chalkboard for class to discuss and evaluate.
Give children help where it is needed when they are proofreading.

8. Guide children in practice.

Procedures:

Use skills periods for common errors.
Use oral situations.
Use devices to interest children in usage practice.
Use language games.

Use workbooks as they are needed in small groups or pairs.

Use textbooks as resource books.

A teacher is most successful with usage teaching if the children are highly cooperative. Such cooperation rests upon the interpersonal relationships existing in the classroom. Children respond to corrections made quietly and with regard for their feelings.

In her usual succinct way, Applegate has made an important point regarding wrong speech patterns. She has said that to help children change wrong speech patterns, first of all there must be a "rich wanting" on the part of the child. Using sarcasm and ridicule in correcting children will never promote a "rich wanting" to change. A child must know what sounds right and he must have a great deal of "good" speech practice.

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THE HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

The history of the English language is divided into three periods. The first period is called the Anglo-Saxon, or Old English period and it dates from 450 A. D. to about 1100 A. D. The second, or Middle English period, dates from 1100 A. D. to about 1500. And the third, or Modern English period extends from 1500 to the present. This history reflects the social, political, and cultural history of the English people, and can be traced to the invasions upon the Britons who inhabited the British Isles.

The earliest known inhabitants of the British Isles were the Celts. Their language was the first Indo-European Language spoken in England. The Celts were forced to move about the land because of poor living conditions caused by the Ice Age glaciers. As the people moved, regional dialects were formed along with a group of closely related languages. These languages are (1) Indian, (2) Iranian, (3) Armenian, (4) Albanian, (5) Balto-Slavonic, (6) Hellenic, (7) Italic, (8) Celtic, and (9) Teutonic. English is a member of the large Indo-European family of languages. It is a branch of the Teutonic group of languages.

Roman invasions in 55 B. C. proposed by Julius Caesar were not successful against the Celts, but in 43 A. D. the Roman emperor Claudius conquered Britain. The Celts remained under Roman rule for almost 400 years. Even though many

evidences of the Roman rule can be seen in the culture of Britain, little change in the Celtic language is noted.

Early in the 5th century the Roman groups withdrew from Britain and fifty years later Britain was invaded for the second time--this time by the pagan tribes of the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes. This invasion marked the beginning of English as a separate, distinct language. Commonly called Old English, the language consisted of a fusion of the few Roman and Celtic words already in use and a new purely Teutonic vocabulary.

Many of the Anglo-Saxon words have been incorporated into Modern English. These words constitute the everyday words that we use most frequently. Most of our prepositions, pronouns, auxiliaries, and conjunctions are of Anglo-Saxon origin; and many of the words we use in speaking of the practical necessities of life--good, house, family--come from the Angles and the Saxons. The following list shows but a few of our "Modernized" Anglo-Saxon words:

of	he	man
so	it	wife
on	her	child
or	I	eat
and	we	drink
at	they	live
is	him	house
but	you	horse

The Roman invasions in 597 A. D. resulted in the addition of about five hundred words to the language. This period was marked by the addition of many ecclesiastical

terms--alms, bishop, hymn, and priest. It is also a period marking the beginning of the practice of freely adding words from another language to English.

The invasions of the Danish from the 8th to the 11th centuries brought Scandinavian elements into the vocabulary. These words are words beginning with harsh, guttural sounds, particularly the g and sk sounds. Most of our words beginning with gn and kn can be traced to the Danish invaders.

The most significant and long lasting influence on the development of English was that of the Normans who gained control of England after the Battle of Hastings in 1066 A. D. When William the Conqueror assumed the throne, England became for the only period in its history, a bilingual country. The masses spoke Old English while the royalty and nobility spoke French. In fact, the English language almost ceased to be a written language at all; and because it was no longer carefully set down by scribes and scholars, it lost much of its grammatical refinement.

During the 13th and 14th centuries English gradually regained status as "the" language of England. Following the Hundred Years' War the middle class helped restore prestige to the English language. The English language penetrated all levels of society, and once again became a written language.

This period of Middle English was marked by changes in pronunciation of existing words and by adding words

brought back from returning Crusaders and traders. New words were also added by the use of root plus prefix and/or suffix.

Grammatical gender was abolished. Gradually many inflections found in Old English were lost. The increase in weak verb forms (adding a suffix to the root verb to indicate tense as in walk, walked, walking), almost eliminated strong verbs (internal vowel change, as in sing, sang). Only a few are still in common with us.

Some scholars refer to the "Great Vowel Shift" of the 15th century. Nouns and adjectives lost their endings and the ending e was adopted. Long vowels gradually came to be pronounced with a greater elevation of the tongue and closing of the mouth. When this could not be done, gliding sounds were uttered, forming diphthongs. Unaccented vowels were weakened and the tendency was to obscure the vowel sound. This indeterminate vowel sound pointed the way to our modern schwa vowel tone.

Spelling suffered from these changes in pronunciation, for the scribes tended to preserve traditional forms as they copied old manuscripts. Many of our present-day spelling difficulties are traceable to this period because spelling was left largely to individual taste.

The period of Modern English, 1500 A. D. to the present, has witnessed further expansion of the language. The Renaissance was marked by intellectual changes all over

Europe, a growth of social consciousness, and an increase in communication. The invention of the printing process made much of this possible, through the books that were made available for distribution.

The English language was ready for further expansion. It had thrown aside many cumbersome features of the languages from which many of its words had come, and had developed a new type of structural pattern. For centuries, Latin had dominated the legal and classical realms of expression. English was gradually assuming this role.

The 18th century produced efforts to standardize the English language. Grammarians attempted to refine the language, and to establish a permanent form. Two more problems were yet to be faced: the expansion of vocabulary to meet increasing demands for terminology representing new knowledge, and the development of a uniform system of spelling. Samuel Johnson's Dictionary was influential in this reform movement.

The expansion of the English language has been expanded and enlarged in the following ways:

1. Borrowings from other languages.

A large percentage of the words in the English language are non-native. The major sources of English words are Greek, Latin, and Anglo-Saxon. Many words have been "borrowed" from other languages, including the list on the next page.

Arabic	cotton
Chinese	chop suey
South Indian	cashmere
Turkish	coffee
German	hoe
Australian	boomerang
African	gorilla
French	gallery
Persian	bazaar
Italian	contralto
Japanese	kimona
Dutch	Yankee
Spanish	tobacco
Russian	vodka
American Indian	moccasin

2. Creation of compound words
 - a. Self-explanatory compounds - skyline, sidewalk, farmyard.
 - b. Compounds formed by combining elements from two other languages, usually Greek and Latin--homogeneous, microscope, thermometer.
3. Using suffixes and prefixes--transcontinental, descend, semicircle.
4. Coining new words--kodak, nabisco, victrola.
5. Creation of portmanteau words--smog from smoke plus fog, chortle from chuckle plus snort, snark from snake plus shark.
6. Making common words from proper nouns--sandwich, mackintosh.
7. Old words with new meanings--steward, record, bonfire.
8. Journalistic jargon--a business deal, hop the Atlantic.
9. Slang--jive, hep, okidokee.
10. Clipping--gas-gasoline, phone-telephone, plane-airplane.

The English language is said to be the most advanced language in its grammatical simplicity, but spelling and pronunciation of the language offer no definite guide.

These difficulties and inconsistencies are traceable to the changes in pronunciation of borrowed words without changing the spelling, representation of several spellings for the same sound, little relationship between spelling and pronunciation, regional differences, uncertain syllabication, and the usage of the original pronunciation of borrowed words.

The mastery of the intricacies of spelling and pronunciation of the English language is dependent upon a thorough knowledge of the language, its history and structure.

Adapted from Evelyn S. Thompson. A Zest for Words: A Handbook for Phonetic and Structural Analysis in Reading. United States of America, 1963.

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HISTORY OF THE LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES

Intermediate

Varieties of Language

By using stories containing Spanish words or French words, children may be made aware of other languages in the world. There are many stories and songs suitable for this activity-- The Story of Ferdinand, Frere Jacques, and O. Tennenbaum are examples.

Language Map Study

The history of language and language families can easily be traced in map study. Language families such as English may be traced to Dutch, German, Swedish, Danish and Norwegian. When the French conquered England the English family became a member of the Latinate or Romance languages. The French family consists of Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, Romanian, and Latin. A third family of languages related to ours is Czech and Polish. The point should also be made that there are languages unrelated to English-American--Indian, African and Chinese languages.

Interpreting Middle English

The period of Middle English and Early Modern English can be traced by reading "Chanticleer and the Fox" and having the children interpret passages and phrases from the story into Modern English.

Tracing Words

Etymologies and meanings of words and how they entered the English language can be traced by reading stories such as "Christopher Columbus and His Brothers," "Hiawatha's Fasting," Theseua and the Minotaur," "The Flight of Icarus," and other mythologies. Students may trace the origins of the unfamiliar words in Webster's Third New International Dictionary.

Families of Languages

Families of Languages may be traced by substituting words:

		<u>English Speaking People</u>	
burro	(Spanish)	gasoline	(petrol)
sheriff	(Anglo-Saxon)	cop	(bobby)
mesa	(Spanish)	cracker	(biscuit)
corral	(Spanish)	bonnet	(hat)
canyon	(Spanish)		
coyote	(Mexican Indian)		
mesquite	(Mexican Indian)		

State Names

It might be very exciting for the children to investigate and locate the origin of state names. Texas, for example, is of Indian origin and was the word meaning "friends" or "allies."

Language in Literature

English and Germanic languages can be traced and examined through stories such as "Leif the Lucky," "Hans Brinker," "The Fisherman and His Wife," "The Goose Girl," and "The Golden Goose." The children may be surprised to note the language the characters speak in these stories is closely related to their own.

Dutch Words

Many Dutch words appear in the story The Queen and the Pauper and these may be made interesting by making a chart of the English and Dutch words.

Rex - king

Mijnheer - Mr.

Ikben - I am

Kaatje - Katie

Willam - William

Jan - John

Regina - queen

Days of the Week

The study of mythology leads well into the study of the origin of the names of the days of the week from Norse mythology.

Wednesday - Woden's Day

Thursday - Thor's Day

Friday - Freya's Day

Origin of Affixes

The study of prefixes and suffixes leads itself to an interesting study of languages: many of our English words are made by using the prefix and suffix from other languages.

Adjective Suffixes

able - Latin
ish - Old English
ic - Greek
ward - Anglo-Saxon
est - Old English

capable
impish
historic
southward
highest

ful - Anglo-Saxon
ous - Latin
y - Anglo-Saxon
less - Anglo-Saxon
like - Modern

thankful
dangerous
windy
helpless
manlike

Prefixes

a - Greek	afoot
be - Anglo-Saxon	befriended
de - Latin and French	descend
fore - Anglo-Saxon	forecast
re - Latin	rewrite

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